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ABSTRACT

This report focuses on the short term basic and occupational skills training needs of rural and urban poor women in developing countries who have had no schooling or those who have entered and/or have completed primary schooling. It is organized into three parts. Part 1 deals with the rationale for training women in occupational skills and examines salient issues of the current status of vocational training for women. Part 2 addresses the question of access, that is, constraints that women face in obtaining and making use of training. In part 3 a brief discussion addresses the concerns within USAID (United States Agency for International Development) regarding employment and income-generation skills training and highlights implications for women. A series of recommendations to deal with many of the issues discussed are presented. (YLB)

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BRINGING WOMEN IN:
TOWARDS A NEW DIRECTION IN OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS TRAINING FOR WOMEN

International Center for Research on Women

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INTRODUCTION

A major unmet need in developing countries is the provision of short term basic and occupational skills training to reach the vast majority of the adult rural and urban poor who have not received sufficient formal education to function economically in a modernizing society.

The 'occupational skills' concept as discussed in this paper situates "training" in the context of the relationship it bears to "developing human capabilities for a productive and satisfying working life",1/ and the opportunity it provides to secure an income-employment/work return to an educational investment. An intrinsic component of any such effort must be to ensure that a large portion of those trained are meaningfully employed.

Occupational skills training differs in scope and nature according to the level of formal schooling attained and the job requirement for which the trainee is prepared. Clearly there is great need to promote such training for both women and men. The problem is more critical for women, however, because policy has not been directed toward developing a full range of skills training for women. This paper focusses on the particular training needs of women who have had no schooling or those who have entered and/or completed primary schooling,2/ i.e. the preliterate, semi-literate and ideally 'functionally' literate population, since this is the resource base of the non-elite spectrum of the female population in the Third World. Any formulation in the redirection of policy related to skills training for women must ultimately take into account the need to combine the 'reality' of the educational attainment of the poor with national needs for specific occupational/job categories, rather than to limit skills training only to the elite few.

This report is organized into three parts. Part I deals with the rationale for training women in occupational skills and examines salient issues of the current status of vocational training for women. Part II addresses the question of access, that is, constraints that women face in obtaining and making use of training. Part III offers a brief discussion of the concerns within USAID regarding employment and income-generation skills training, and highlights possible implications for women finally, a series of recommendations to deal with many of the issues discussed are presented.

THE RATIONALE FOR A STRATEGY FOCUSSED ON BASIC AND OCCUPATIONAL SKILLS TRAINING FOR WOMEN

The case for the provision of basic and occupational skills training opportunities for women is not an equity issue. Clearly women are more highly represented among the marginally educated population and further training programs for women will narrow the present gap between the sexes.3/ However, there are also far-reaching benefits to be accrued from programmatic efforts on behalf of women insofar as the enhancement of direct income and potential income generation of households are concerned, as well as for overall national productivity objectives.4/ By providing labor to meet the crutial shortages in skilled/semi-skilled professions, 5/ trained women can contribute to household stability, economic survival as well as to national productivity and growth. Their addition to the work force also serves to reduce unemployment and underemployment rates. Moreover, return of investments in training programs may well give a higher yield in the case of women than that of men, because women who have acquired marketable skills are less likely to emigrate than men. (Hammam, 1979; Harfoush, 1980).

There is some debate in development circles regarding the desirability of promoting training programs for women outside of the formal structure. Non formal vocational training is perceived by some to reinforce/perpetuate the second-class-citizen status of women.

Occupational skills training--by definition--is oriented to the specific enhancement of work and income potentials. Its criteria of success should not, however, rest solely on short term work and income needs of women but include longer range objectives of skills and knowledge that enhance women's self reliance, autonomy in decision making, and participation and adaptation to change. The gut issue is not one of formal versus non formal education, for the population we are dealing with are adult women who for historical reasons have 'lost out' already and who cannot 'be plugged back' into the formal structure. The debate as such assumes significance only if one is planning for future school age population.6/ Given the current disadvantaged position of women, occupational skills programs represent one of the few mechanisms available for low income women to secure an income employment/work return for educational/training investment.

A second set of issues operates to again underline the importance of training in alleviating women's occupational disadvantage. Training programs involving women have by and large tended to reinforce a sex-segregated labor market that has restricted women to the most economically marginal positions. Women's lack of training in certain fields and the relegation of training to "feminine appropriate" areas creates a vicious circle whereby women cannot apply for work in certain fields because they have not received the proper training; this in turn, perpetuates the prevalence of males in certain fields (labeled "men's work) and thus strengthens sex segregated occupations further forcing women into marginal and low productivity sectors (ATRCW: 1976).

Salient Characteristics of Current Programs for Women

A sex-based status hierarchy in the work structure of the Third World is allowed to exist precisely because illiteracy, lack of training and on-the-job experience keep women's productivity low, thus legitimizing discrimination against them in hiring practices, and/or relegating them to the lowest status-lowest paid jobs in the secondary labor market. (Standing, 1978).

Vocational training opportunities for women are expanding, yet expanding primarily in areas which are considered "feminine appropriate"; this is occuring at the expense of exclusion or discouragement of entry into male occupation oriented programs. The following paragraphs will attempt to outline the areas of expansion in both of these kinds of programs.

Explicit Exclusion of Women: There is compelling evidence across regions and countries of the explicit exclusion of women from training centers offering industrial, technical, and mechanical skills, regardless of whether the funding and management of such programs is under the auspices of international agencies, bilateral agreements, national governments, etc. The United Nations Specialized Agencies (UNDP, ILO, UNICEF, FAO) have channelled their educational efforts on behalf of rural and urban women to the home economics streams. The World Bank funded educational projects in Jordan, exclude women from training in food technology, textile technology and other industrial streams, confining women to home economics and commercial options. An AID sponsored Vocational Iraining Corporation Project in Jordan, which is the major supplier of skilled and semi skilled industrial labor for the public and private sector, is closed to women. In Sri Lanka, the Hotel School of the State Hotels Corporation discriminates against women in a burgeoning field of employment by blocking admission of women to the diploma course in Management and Catering and to cooking courses (authorities maintain that women cannot work in 'hot' kitchens). A National Apprenticeship Program in that country aiming to integrate school leavers into the mainstream, limits female enrolment to only 6 of the 51 trade courses offered nationwide. (University of Colombo, 1979). In Panama, women are still denied access to traditionally masculine activities "since Panamanian vocational training experts consider these courses to be exclusive to or peculiar to the male sex, owing to the nature of the work". (ILO, 1979: 55).

One of the most blatant examples of women's exclusion from training programs whose content was directly linked to their productive role, is the African experience. Whereas African women carry out between 70 to 100% of agricultural production and 50% of animal husbandry care, they were virtually excluded from non-formal rural education programs related to these areas. By contrast the attendance in Nutrition and Home Economics courses was exclusively female. (Safilios-Rothschild, 1972).

Explicit discouragements: In addition to the formal exclusion mentioned above, women are explicity discouraged from entering certain types of training. Theoretically programs are opened to both men and women, in practice women's participation is often limited.

There is a strong assumption that women prefer single sex training programs for cultural reasons or because of the advantages involved in establishing a sex monopoly over certain types of jobs. But this should not be construed to mean that women are not receptive to other options which are more productive. Thai women, for example, expressed preference to learn about animal husbandry and crop cultivation, over training in weaving and the handicrafts; Jordanian women refused to enroll in specially designed courses in cosmetology, pottery and mother of pearl industry, opting instead for carpentry and dressmaking. The first experiment to set up an Industrial/Trade Training Program for Women in Morocco received more applicants than they could handle. (Harfoush, 1980).

Often there are not any legal barriers which limit the access of women to certain fields, but administratively quotas are enforced in institutions in such a way as to create de facto, a single sex specialization. This is a noteworthy feature of the situation in Latin America. Likewise, where training programs are 'technically' open to men and women and where no quota systems exist to restrict women's access, there are cultural perceptions and definitions of certain areas of specialization as exclusively masculine. 7/

This is the case in the Agricultural and the Practical Farms Schools in Sri Lanka. Even when no quota exists to restrict women's access, de facto perceptions and definitions make it difficult for women to even think of applying. Four years after its establishment the government-sponsored Industrial/Training Centers in Morocco had received only two applications from women. In Egypt there is a male to female ratio of 9:1 in the secondary-level industrial schools and a 25:1 ratio in the agricultural schools.

Proliferation of programs specially designed for women are found only at several levels: at the non formal levels for illiterates and school leavers (involving sewing, knitting, embroidery, hairstyling, mostly geared towards improving/beautifying the home rather than being market oriented) and at Vocational Institute levels for those who completed primary school, involving home economics streams with options in beauty culture, child care, weaving, industrial sewing, pastry, hairstying, printing, flower and toy making. At higher technical training levels women are almost exclusively offered commercial options: i.e. secretaries, typists, assistant accountants, bookkeeper aides, etc. While these courses may have some level of employment potential, unlike the design for most "male" courses, little consideration is given for the marketability of this women's training. (CINTERFOR: 1978).

The proliferation of women-specific vocational training as well as the exclusion of women from certain training opportunities are clearly exemplified in the practice of training women to become professionals.

Sex Segregation in Paraprofessional Training: The creation of middle and lower paraprofessional * jobs in various occupational categories is now a well accepted practice in developing countries for several reasons. The shortage of trained professionals and the high cost of training people as professionals are two of them. The determination to deliver services to as many people in as short a time as possible--what is termed extension of coverage--has also prompted the training of paraprofessionals. Finally, the belief that paraprofessionals represent easily-trained, cheap resources, and the need to create sources of employment have also promoted this practice.

Paraprofessional work can be carried out at several different levels, depending on the complexity of the job or service involved. In the health field, for instance paraprofessional work ranges from the level of health promoters who do simple diagnosis and treatment, provide immunizations and referral, to nurse aides and, in certain cases, registered nurses.

Paraprofessionals are now quite common in several fields--health, nutrition, and environmental sanitation, agricultural extension, instruction/education and home economics (Kahler and Droegkamp, 1980). Although within each field the educational and training requirements for potential paraprofessionals vary widely, depending on the type of service and the particular project, most require functional literacy and numeracy. The prototype of the paraprofessional, as well as the most widely known example, is the "barefoot doctor" of the People's Republic of China a health worker who has little previous formal education and has received intensive health training during three to six months (Sidel 1972; Sidel and Sidel 1974). A recent study reports that young women who have dropped out of school have been trained to become successful paraprofessionals and extension agents in the areas of agriculture, health, community development, literacy instruction and non-formal education (Kahler and Droegkamp 1980). Yet the study does not provide any sex-specific figures for these types of paraprofessional training. Data are available from other sources, however, that show very clearly that women are, in fact, not being trained in all paraprofessional fields but, instead, are being channelled into "feminine" ones, primarily health care and home economics (i.e., nutrition, childrearing, environmental sanitation and personal hygiene).8/

Apart from the stereotyping of paraprofessional occupations, sex-segregation between professionals and paraprofessionals within certain service fields, notably that of health delivery, is a major issue. In training women as health paraprofessionals in the modern health sector,9/ two types of sex-stereotyping occur: first, paramedical occupations become defined as essentially feminine vis-a-vis other kinds of paraprofessional occupations; second, the sex-segregation between professionals (men) and paraprofessionals (women) in the modern health field is reinforced and perpetuated.10/ Witness the case of Sri Lanka where 90% of all trainees in auxiliary paramedical courses have been women: 85% of nursing students, 100% of dental nursing students and 100% of midwifery students. In contrast, the more technically oriented paramedical occupations of physiotherapy, radiotherapy and laboratory technology are dominated by males: women constitute between one-fourth and one-third of these medical paraprofessionals (University of Colombo 1979).

* The term paraprofessional has been given various meanings. In this report it will be used to refer to all sub-professional level occupations which are directly involved in service or technical delivery and which fall within the professional service sector. Skilled industrial and crafts work will not be considered paraprofessional work.

The stereotyping of paramedical occupations as feminine carries over into the field of veterinary medicine. A study of vocational and paraprofessional training for women in Latin America demonstrates that when women are trained as paraprofessionals in agricultural extension and animal husbandry, they invariably become paraprofessionals in animal health. "In this connection many institutions praise the excellent work done by women in such fields as vaccination, artificial insemination, etc." (ILO 1979: 50).

The stereotyping of paramedical occupations as feminine poses another problem--the little or non-existent remuneration that women receive for this work. In training women as paramedics as a natural extension of their nurturing, caretaking role of wives and mothers there is a danger that the paraprofessional work will be valuated by the same standards currently used to undervalue women's home-related work. This tendency is already apparent in official publications of the World Health Organization: "In most societies, women play an important role in promoting health, particularly in view of their central position in the family; this means that they can contribute significantly to primary health care, especially in ensuring the application of preventive measures. Women's organizations in the community can be encouraged to discuss such questions as nutrition, child care, sanitation and family planning" (WHO and UNICEF 1978: 34, emphasis theirs). Consequently, there is a danger that the potentially profitable, income-producing paramedical work women become trained to do may be redefined as volunteer work, justified by the "logical" affinity between mothering and caretaking.11/

Paraprofessional work in all fields remains a source of income-generation for adult women. Possibilities for enhancing women's participation in paraprofessional training and overcoming the problems described above are presented in the recommendations.

STRUCTURAL PROGRAM ACCESS FOR WOMEN AND BY WOMEN

In addition to formal obstacles inhibiting women's access to training programs are subtler constraints inherent in the actual design of training programs and those which are based upon woman's self definition of her place in society. Ultimately, the extent to which women 'respond' to training opportunities reflects, in large part, women's self concept, self image, life expectations and ambitions.

For this part of the discussion, then, let us assume that the motivation to explicitly include women in training policy is present and examine more carefully those subtle factors that often limit her ability to obtain and make use of training opportunities available.

Implicit Exclusion: By paying little or no attention to the very obvious constraints that women face with regard to mobility, autonomy, level of education, the double burden, etc., the design of training programs often excludes women by simply not accounting for them. Traditional assumptions about women's work, their needs and motivations, when left unchallenged result in the design/planning of programs in which women cannot participate because proper account has not been take of the reality in which they function.

Implicit Discouragement: Women desiring to compete effectively in the market place and possibly move into formerly 'male exclusive' work sectors are frequently offered training in areas that lack market relevancy. A good example is training in the handicrafts for which there is no market outlet, or for which appropriate materials are not available. Such conditions not only mean that women have invested time and resources unproductively, but planners will believe that training for women is not cost effective.12/

A second problem accompanying training in certain skills is the necessity for access to other resources, such as credit facilities, transportation, and so forth. If women are not provided with these complementary support networks critical to putting their training into practice they may discouraged to become participants if and when training opportunities are made available.

Basically the potentially limiting factors that operate to 'exclude' or 'discourage" women in this respect can be divided into two broad categories: program access and women's access to programs. The first category deals with the identification of training programs made available to them and how these are planned and designed; the second, with the different modes which encourage/discourage women from utilizing and/or investing in the opportunities made available to them. While these factors are closely inter related, the distinction may help to identify specific issues inhibiting access that can be minimized and those points which can facilitate women's ability to participate.

The discussion which follows is neither meant to be conclusive, nor to imply that each issue identified is present in all situations (obviously they are not). Its purpose is to highlight and illustrate issues that appear as underlying factors to many diverse situations and are specific to the access to training by women. There has been little research done to examine the problem of access; yet the consequences of not addressing this issue and thereby 'effectively excluding' women's participation are many.

Program Access

What are some of the underlying premises of policy on which the planning and design for training programs for women are based?

Assumptions: Policy planners tend to view the roles and contribution of women primarily, if not solely, in terms of her functions as wife and mother at the loss of recognition to her role as producer. This is true despite the fact that compelling evidence has been presented regarding woman's significant contribution in both the formal and informal sectors of the economy. That woman's economic participation and contributions are under estimated and undervalued is no longer a subject of debate, nor is the fact that women's work participation is rapidly increasing in the Third World dictated if not always by choice, certainly so by necessity (ICRW: 1980 a; 1980 b).

The fact that planners do not recognize this reality, at least in practice, is illustrated by the existing training opportunities for women supporting her reproductive functions. Recognizing this situation the ILO writes: "Female enrollment in vocational training institutions is a fairly true reflection of the precarious and often marginal situation of women in the labor force. Consequently, vocational training is in practice not so much an instrument for breaking down the barriers that women encounter in the labor force as an extension of the discriminatory systems of participation". (ILO, 1979) 13/

Cultural Images: In the process of modernization definitions of the economic roles and responsibilities of women have been changing. In many instances this means that women's actual behavior is different than the "ideal" behavior prescribed by tradition. For some time now there have been strong indications that the apparent social, cultural and even legal barriers to women's participation are not as restrictive nor as static as has been assumed (ICRW, 1980 b). In more recent years economic need has led to the further breakdown of many of these 'ideal' role expectations. In fact, changes in the roles and participation of women do not follow a linear development, particularly when related to income generation and participation in decision making (Mickelwait: 1976). The Chinese efforts to establish a textile factory in 'Senā', Yemen, provides a vivid illustration. When the time came to recruit factory labor the Chinese requested female staff. The government of Yemen was skeptical about the feasibility of this stipulation, presuming that Islamic cultural constraints were serious enough to prevent such participation. Following a massive radio campaign to recruit

women, over 600 Yemeni women (mostly heads of household) showed up to apply for jobs when the factory opened (Hammam, 1979). Much of the breakdown in cultural proscriptions can, in fact, be traced to family fragmentation and the need for women to assume greater economic responsibility for themselves and their families.

Aspirations: There is a definite gap between women's aspirations and the kinds of opportunities that are made available to them in training programs. The fact is that in the absence of campaigns or governmental promotions, women are applying for courses in 'male' occupations despite the hostility and restricted access to resources and employment opportunities that they thereby encounter (CINTERFOR, 1976). Studies conducted in Colombia and Costa Rica have shown that women expressed a serious interest to participate in training programs in 'male fields'. Only forty one percent in Colombia and 24 percent in Costa Rica were reluctant to foray into exclusively 'male' work territory (CINTERFOR, 1976).

Women both have and express desires to enter fuller and more diverse range of economic and social opportunities. But those aspirations are often ignored. Women have demonstrated in the face of unfavorable conditions and limited opportunities their ability and determination to widen the options open to them. In a study of rural Kenya which centered around the differential access to agricultural extension services available to women and men, it was noted that more than one third of the women who were early-acceptors of a new hybrid seed had received no advice or technical assistance as compared to less than three percent of the men. This suggests a greater tendency by women to innovate, as well as the significance of relative autonomy in the innovation process, since these women were all heads of households (Staudt, 1976).

Furthermore women appear to be more perseverant in completing their training as compared to men. This has been the experience at the Brazilian SENAI Training Center, where in some programs male drop out rates are four times higher than those of women. SENAI officials point out that in fact female enrollment in these courses is in itself indicative of a high degree of motivation and commitment on the part of the women and that they seldom drop out before termination (CINTERFOR, 1976)

Pre Conditions: As a standard leveler, planners set arbitrary preconditions as requirements for enrollment in training programs. Literacy and numeracy are often established as a means to institute a level of 'equitability' and to provide a cut-off point for applicants' in other cases completion of certain level of formal schooling is a pre-requisite.14/ Often such preconditions are not necessarily related to complexity of the training itself. More important--given the relatively disadvantaged educational position of women (high illiteracy, irregular school attendance, high drop out rates) such preconditions exclude the vast majority of women from the benefits of learning some skills that will permit them to survive economically. 15/

Formal education pre-requisites often ignore the 'relevant' experience women may have and which is often directly related to the particular training pursued. 16/ More over, training programs may be more successful if functional literacy is included in the design as part of the program output. Not only will such a component open wider opportunities for women who have been bypassed by the educational system, but the desire for functional literacy and numeracy has been found to work as a significant factor motivating women to join and continue training programs. 17/

Channels of Communication: Training programs are typically channeled through the 'family'. The motivation underlying this approach is the belief that all family members through joint interaction and application of their knowledge, would benefit. This was especially believed to be the case for agricultural activities and family enterprises. In reality however, the "trickle down" assumptions inherent in this approach have not been borne out; and women particularly have not reaped full benefit.

Little is known of the ways in which women and men each promote or hinder, accept or reject 'innovation and change', as well as learn from one another within the family context. The classical approach is illustrate by an experience from Africa:

> "In the African way, we speak to the man who is the head of the house and assume he will pass on the information to other household members" (Smithells, 1972).

This has been typical of training in agricultural extension--the guiding assumption being that the man would pass on to his wife (wives) those aspects of information that he gains from outside sources and which is important for her to know. Moreover, it is also assumed that the women will believe and act upon the information handed over to her by her husband and alter her customary practices accordingly (Staudt 1976).

Another characteristic feature of communication channels is that the recruitment or selection of participants for training is often based on local power structure in which women more often than not have lesser status and standing than men. Access to training may be used to confer or confirm status; to promote and enhance the position of those who are already better off (Staudt, 1976). Often community organizations become the vehicles for training and they too may implicitly limit women's access. For example an organization such as a cooperative based on land onwership, may exclude women who do not have title to land (even when they are the sole workers of that land); or separate organizations for men and women on either formal or informal bases may exist that serve single-sex interest only. 18/

Attention to seemingly insignificant issues such as the selection of words to use in the promotion of a training opportunity, may have major consequence for the participation of women. For example, a radio non-formal agricultural training program in Guatemala entitled "Señor Campesino"

(Mr. Farmer) implicity excluded women for the active role they might have had. In another case in Morocco, the recruitment of students to an Industrial Training Program used the word "Shobbān" (male gender, plural for youth), locally understood to mean 'young men' and effectively excluded women from considering the program. Although the consequences of both of these examples are unevaluated, the potential implication are no doubt significant.

Women's access to information about programs and work opportunities may also be inhibited by particular vehicles of communication in the community. Key factors enabling women to employ their training skills are the information they have access to regarding availability of credit and other productive inputs; marketing channels and outlets; pre and post training advice, etc. Integrating access to training with access to other related information and opportunities is essential for the effective participation of women in training programs.19/

Allocation of Resources: The allocation of resources is critical for the success or failure of any training program. Programs for women --especially those which are 'feminine appropriate'--have suffered consistently from lower priority demonstrated by the lower quality and quantity of resources made available to them. For example, the equipment and material used to train women is often obsolete and inadequate, and may be discarded from elsewhere. This was the case in a Guatemala center which trained women to be skilled factory workers: the equipment they had to work with was so outdated that their training was not suited to modern factory work (Youssef, 1977).

Aside from such explicit factors, there are additional features that inhibit women's program access; these include among others, the location of facilities, staffing, timing, duration of course and infrastructural support to participants--all of which can be subsumed under the general rubric of resource planning.

In certain cultures norms may preclude contact between the sexes and/or between non related individuals. Such conditions require single-sex training facilities and staffing.20/ The location of training centers, particularly in urban areas, may assume a degreee of mobility that women do not have--either because the norms prescribe their physical space and/or they are unable to travel distances because of family responsibilities. The timing and duration of programs may also assume a relatively high degree of flexibility with time that women may not have in the same manner as men. 21/ All of these "assumptions" to varying degrees implicitly inhibit the access to programs women may have. While by design, there may be no intention to neglect the needs of women, and policy may openly promote women's participation, neglect of these factors can effectively exclude women from access to training. 22/

Women's Access to Programs

Investment Capability: Occupational skills training is an 'investment' made by the sponsoring organization and by the participant. The ability and motivation to make such an investment differ between women and men; mainly because women face greater inhibiting factors. It is precisely the neglect to consider women's differential ability to meet the 'investment' requirements related to their participation in training programs that acts to implicitly exclude them from such opportunities.

Most women face the double burden of both domestic and economic responsibility which men do not (ICRW, 1980 b). This double burden often inhibits women's ability to invest in training despite a high level of motivation and commitment. Ironically, it is the fact of the double burden that makes it all the more imperative for women to be trained for productive work so that they can meet their dual responsibilities effectively.

In participating in a training program, many women are in fact called upon to meet a 'triple burden'--domestic duties, work and training. In the long run training could significantly provide women with more effective means to cope with their economic and domestic demands. In the short run, however, the demands attached to her participation (particularly in the absence of complementary infrastructure, support, etc.) may dictate that she forego the training opportunities 'available'.

Other key factors inhibiting women's ability to make use of available opportunities include: a) the timing and duration of programs (time of the day, season, etc.); b) infrastructural supports such as child care and water systems, which help provide more flexibility with women's time; c) economic capability (women frequently have less access to and discretion over cash resources and may be excluded or discouraged because of fees and other financial requirements); d) in addition women generally have less mobility than men and are more restricted by limited transportation. More importantly women are often constrained from participation because they have less ability to make autonomous decisions independent of male kin, husbands (Staudt, 1976) or because of their dependents (Harfoush, 1980).

Relevance: Participation in training programs is also affected by:

a) women's perception of the relevancy of training in terms of the objective conditions surrounding her, including societal role expectations;

b) woman's individual perception of herself, i.e., her self concept, self image, life expectations and ambitions.

In the former case the majority of women may be opting to participate in 'feminine appropriate' fields of training only because these bear greater relevancy to the objective conditions imposed upon their lives, (for example, the necessity to combine family and household responsibility) rather than

to internalized traditional images of themselves. In the absence of support services, the objective conditions of domestic demands may make it impossible to conceive of undertaking income generating activities outside of home production. Provision of greater support to alleviate household chores, combined with reasonable incentives to engage in economically productive activities outside of the household is expected to encourage many women to seek training in non traditional areas, if for no other reason than that these are more economically rewarding 23/.

Relevancy of training is also affected by women's self concept and self esteem. The socialization process confining women to traditional roles can limit her perceptions of herself as wife and mother only. Stepping beyond these traditional images may present serious conflicts. Where a woman may have ambitions to undertake non traditional roles and move outside of the traditional confines, she will often be inhibited to do so because of the absence of alternative role models, by images available to her through the media, or lack of contact with support organizations.

Country experiences have shown that women are finding ways to overcome the many obstacles imposed by the limited training options available. Those actively seeking for and/or creating opportunities for themselves outside of traditional boundaries tend to be the 'independent thinkers (USAID, 1978). Once women perceive opportunities to be relevant to their priorities, they will be more strongly motivated to 'make' time in order to fully benefit from the range of opportunities made available to them (UNAPDI, 1978).

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

This review of vocational training for women has purposely focussed on occupational skills training which could enable women to secure employment or become involved in income-generating activities immediately after completion. Women's economic marginality, their pressing economic need and the obstacles they face when entering the labor force have all been documented elsewhere (Buvinić and Youssef with Von Elm 1978; ICRW 1980 b). Here the emphasis has been on the means necessary to prepare women to better cope with their poverty and disadvantaged position in the labor market, and the shortcomings of current programmatic attempts to train women in occupational skills.

What would be some of the consequences of the failure to train women in occupational skills? It would have adverse effects on national development efforts as well as on poor women themselves. A failure to train women in vocational and occupational skills could widen the productivity gap between the modern and the traditional sectors of national economies; it would perpatuate the proliferation of jobs in the informal labor market and accentuate the current problems of the informal sector. The lack of occupational skills training for women would also mean that the potential of development efforts is not fully realized. Those that remain untrained cannot participate fully and productively in the modernization process, which, in turn, means that the human resources essential to development would be partly going to waste. Finally the negative repercussions of not training the current adult female population would also be felt in the reduced productive capacity of the subsequent generation.

The adverse effects of a lack of vocational and occupational skills training for poor adult women themselves would be just as critical although much more dramatic in their human dimension. To begin with, "... a rarely recognized ramification... is that women are often unable to cope as well as they might with their mothering and domestic responsibilities. Overworked and illiterate, they cannot take full advantage of the welfare programs meant to reach them" (Germain, 1976-1977: 164). A lack of training opportunities would also translate into a widening of the already quite marked opportunity gap between men and women in the process of socio-economic transformation. It would perpetuate, if not increase the poverty fo women and their dependents. It would sustain and reinforce the confinement of women to the peripheral, unstable and less productive employment possibilities they now have. And it would effectively prevent them from moving into the productive, modern sector of society. In short, <u>not</u> training women to make them qualified participants in economic development would maintain their status as second-class citizens, since, as was demonstrated earlier, these women were not and are not being "captured" by the formal educational system. Same compensatory mechanism is, therefore, in order for the adult women of the present and previous generations.

CURRENT DIRECTIONS AND PRIORITIES IN EDUCATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

A series of short interviews were held with AID staff to identify some of the more recent developments, priorities and policy directions within the Agency that bear relevance to future directions and programmatic emphasis in the field of skills training.*

Three separate effects are noteworthy along this line: One, a Task Force Study (1978) initiated by AA/PDC outlined key issues for consideration within AID of employment specific policy concerns. Two, the strategies and programs pursued by the Regional Bureaus and the DSB-Office of Education with respect to actual and/or planned projects point to the inter-relatedness of issues and variety of alternative approaches in the field. And finally, the recent creation of a "Special Task Force Unit on Employment Generation" (May 1980) in the DSB, illustrates the evolution of concrete efforts specific to employment concerns and indirectly related to training.

AID has an explicit policy for Education and Human Resource Development (IDCA, 1980) It has begun to evolve what could potentially become a complementary strategy for Employment and Labor Development. Specific provisions for the implementation of a strategy of employment and training differ within and across the Regional Central Bureaus.

Labor Affairs Task Force Report: The "new directions mandate" reoriented AID strategy towards addressing the needs of those at the lowest end of the development spectrum. The AID Labor Affairs Task Force was established in 1978 by AA/PDC to review and make recommendations for a labor/employment focused strategy. The general recommendations presented by LATF outlined the importance of including training components within the comprehensive approach to employment and labor development. More critically, the report recommended that employment and income be incorporated as a purpose level objective in AID policy and program criteria. In its recommendations, the Report encourages:

> "increased emphasis to policies and programs with an employment orientation in development planning; to integrate programs which are designed to improve the employment and income situations of the poorer segments of less-developed countries labor forces and to those activities which enhance and promote the participation of the poor target groups in the planning, implementation and benefits of development projects" (USAID, 1979: 10).

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* This discussion is not intended to be an evaluation of AID policy, but rather to highlight concerns and approaches within USAID as they may serve to illustrate possible development strategies, issues and program approaches. It is not presented as a conclusive statement or as an assessment review of USAID work in this regard.

The reference to women reads as follows:

"It was agreed that labor force integration and the promotion of women's activities should be treated as integral components of all employment and labor activities rather than as discrete activities to be identified under separate headings. The Task Force, has not therefore, inserted repetitous references to its awareness and concern; rather it intends that all activities focus equally on the special concerns of women and minorities" (USAID, 1979: A-4, emphasis supplied).

The degree to which the intent expressed in such a recommendation will be translated and implemented in actuality as explicit policy and program objective rests in large part on the extent to which earlier discussed dimensions related to women's access to programs are taken into consideration in the planning and design stages. The contribution of the LATF report rests on the fact that it created an awareness of labor and employment concerns and in that it carries the potential to help stimulate more direct linkages between these concerns and the content and strategy design of training efforts.24/

Current Priorities in the Central and Regional Bureaus: To explore in brief form some of the current priorities within the Agency with respect to the development and promotion of income generating skills training programs, a series of short interviews were conducted with staff from the Office of Education (DSB) and the four Regional Bureaus. 25/

The most significant theme that emerged from these discussions is the emphasis placed by AID on innovation--particularly the promotion of innnovative exploration of "non-formal" training. The actual training done, however, is only in few instances linked specifically to employment and income generating capacity. The general contention among the staff interviewed is that 'training' is not the responsibility of any one unit but can be an explicit component integrated into all sectoral activities. The objective of training programs is perceived by several staff interviewed to be significant for development success in general, rather than necessarily linked to short term income earning needs.

The Office of Education (DSB) pursues the following objectives in its programmatic emphasis:

a) to develop a system of communication for education;

b) to assist in systematizing national educational approaches, particularly in the area of non-formal education;

c) to accelerate the development of national capability necessary for the effective design, management and monitoring of programs.

The Office has sponsored several innovative programs and approaches to respond to the needs of specific sectors of the population. These include the "Out of School Youth Project" and the "Non-Formal Education for

Women Project". The latter is sponsored in both the Philippines and Kenya, and emphasizes the involvement of participants in the design, implementation and evaluation of the program as a basic framework for dealing with "learning needs" in a wide range of areas.

Concern was expressed within the Office of Education with the lack of explicit responsibility within the Agency for "vocational training" programs. At the same time the staff do not regard this area as falling under their aegis. In particular, "training and skill development" should be made an explicit and integral component of the different sectoral programs. These programs, at present, generally overlook the importance or assume the separate existence of a "training component".

The Regional Bureaus: The Latin American and Near East Bureaus have expressed the following as objectives of their EHRD activities:

a) expanding access to basic education;

b) developing indigenous institutions, programs and personnel capability for more effective design, management and implementation of human resource development.

Illustrative examples of the kinds of activities that the Regional Bureaus carry out include, among others, the following projects:

The Latin America Bureau is sponsoring a pilot project in the use of "Educational Media for the Integration of Women". This is done through an AID grant to the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of the OAS. The project began in 1979 in the Dominican Republic and will be expanded to cover three countries. The project includes an assessment of the role of women, more particularly in relation to savings, marketing, animal husbandry and in the small family-owned farm unit. From a development perspective the objective is to enhance farm productivity, increase income/earning return to producers and improve diet/health conditions of the population. The project purpose is to test and develop guidelines for the usage of the radio and other supplementary materials as an effective system for training. Agricultural extensionists are attached to the project.

In the English speaking Caribbean, a recent priority has been established to promote on-the job-training to bridge the gap between educational attainment and employment-related prerequisites. As yet no one particular project has been set up to do this.

The training programs sponsored by the Near East Bureau are directly related to vocational/occupational skills training, but do not always include women. In Egypt, there are two ongoing projects: The Vehicle Maintenance Training and the Vocational Industries. The former--basically in-service training to upgrade existent workers--does not have formal schooling requirement. Women are excluded because "of the nature of the work involved". The focus of the Vocational Industries Project (attached to the Ministry of

Industry and National Resources) is to upgrade the existent 35-40 Training Centers primarily through the training of trainers. One of these centers is expected to be open to women.

In Jordan AID has supported the Vocational Training Corporation which through its skill training program graduates skilled and semi-skilled labor for the public/private sector. Women are excluded from this Training Program.

Two AID sponsored training programs in Morocco are specifically targeted to women: a) the recently established Industrial and Commercial Job Training Institute which will graduate semi-skilled women in the fields of drafting, mechanics, assembly line, typing, office work, etc.; and b) the upgrading of the nationwide network of non-formal educational centers for adolescent females under the Ministry of Youth and Sports, which provides basic skills training throughout 300 centers to young women who have been bypassed by the formal schooling system.

The EHRD strategy of the Africa Regional Bureau has established priorities in:

a) the development of rural learning systems particularly for rural producers and their families;

b) expanding access to primary education;

c) developing indigenous administrative and technical expertise for the design, management and implementation of human resource development programs.

Cutting across all these priorities is an expressed concern for the fuller participation of women. The specific activities pursued include some that are part of formal education. The majority, however, are related to training in the areas of agriculture, health, and other rural development sectors. Literacy is considered a necessary component of specific skills training, to provide wider access to knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary for effective participation in development.

The Senegal Cereals Production Project is considered as a good example of an integrated approach to community development with skills training and wide participation of women. The project design includes training, access to technology and credit, research, extension services, and assistance to cooperative formation. It relies on the active participation of the population in articulating its interests and needs. It makes full use of inputs from government programs as well as village-level inputs.

The Asia Regional Bureau expressed specific concern with employment/income generation-related issues. By early 1981 it is expected that the Bureau will have evolved a program strategy that will include the employment/income generation capacity-criteria as an integral component to all projects. This should provide the groundwork for a reorientation/redirection of policy efforts with respect to training, in such a way as to

make programs more directly related to income-skills and employment objectives.

The Asia Bureau gives explicit priorities to rural development, including water/irrigation systems, research and extension, access to agricultural inputs, rural/agricultural planning capability and infrastructural development. Employment/income generation and skills-training components can be built around many of these priorities as an integral part of the design, in a way that will include women as well as men.

Special Task Force Unit on Employment Generation: Within DSB, there has been considerable concern with the lack of specific responsibility for employment development. A special Task Force Unit was recently established (May 1980) to address directly this felt need. The Unit will be a functioning effort within the DSB to integrally deal with employment. It will include representatives from DAA/Food and Nutrition, DS-Urban Development, DS-Rural and Administrative Development, DS-Science and Technology and DS-Agriculture, who will maintain ties with their current offices but will work within the context of the Special Unit. A representative from DSB-Education will also participate, though the explicit context for that participation is not yet defined.

The work of the Special Task Force Unit on Employment Generation will enhance the DSB capabilities to be both innovative and concrete in dealing with employment related issues.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS TO INCREASE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN AND IMPROVE THEIR ACCESS TO TRAINING

At the National Level

1. Identify and project current labor needs and future trends in relation to national and regional growth to make explicit actual and potential role assessments for women as well as men.

   (a) Assess work/productive contributions of women and identify:

      i. areas where productivity can be enhanced, e.g., agriculture and marketing;

      ii. where entry and skill mobility can be facilitated, e.g., urban industry.

   (b) Assess labor pool potential including:

      i. the location and concentration of women in the rural and urban sectors;

      ii. which sectors women are active in or interested in entering;

      iii. levels of skills women possess and need to develop.

   (c) Address training priorities for women to present and projected market demands and growth potentials.

2. Target areas of productivity specifically for the accelerated integration of women (by sector, quotas, new industry sex-bias); provide training with vigorous recruitment of women.

3. Encourage coordination between training programs and development trends of the economic sector. Include incentives to women for participation (e.g., scholarships).

4. Establish or strengthen a Commission for Women to serve as a research and planning advocate for the needs of women in training, employment, access to resources, and access to services.

5. Coordinate national and regional planning and training programs to maximize limited resources (e.g., regional center for training national trainers) and utilize work/field training experience to enhance design effectiveness.

6. Make explicit policy and program objectives at all levels to minimize the possible biases of program and local groups (e.g., extension agents, local religious leadership) that may inhibit women's access to training. Provide concrete plans and resources of the ways and means to enhance women's productive roles through training programs. Encourage the training of women in all field to minimize sex-segregation in national training and vocational occupations.

7. Complement policy oriented to enhance vocational training opportunities for women with policy that encourages the education and training of women at all levels of the professional and paraprofessional spectrum in the fields of science and technology, to avoid perpetuating the sex-segregation between professional and vocational training and occupations.

B. At the Program and Project Levels

Program Access

1. Emphasize (through financial support, recognition, etc.) training programs that can promote and strengthen the organization of women into women's cooperatives and associations or that facilitate effective integration of women into mixed organizations such as labor unions, and community councils.

2. Encourage the creation of 'training groups' at the local level.

3. Investigate and utilize both formal and informal channels of information and organization operating among women. Encourage organizations that act as 'self-advocates' in articulating training priorities.

4. Recruit and educate women trainers in all skills and methods for specifically reaching women students. Draw these trainers from local communities where possible. Train women as paraprofessionals in all fields in the technical paraprofessions to avoid perpetuating a sex stereotyped paraprofessional and vocational occupational structure.

5. Develop methods and programs which minimize requirements for certain level of literacy, arithmetic knowledge and other such conditions for participation in training programs. Integrate these basic skills into vocational programming. Build on existing knowledge, skills and experience of women.

6. Integrate process as well as content skills to enhance the adaptability of training provided (e.g., organizational process, contact/work with agencies).

7. Utilize methods of training that promote active participation by women; develop leadership potential/skills of women and clarify links between skills and opportunities for women.

8. Establish centers in locations which are readily accessible to concentrations of female population and which require a minimum of travel for participants.

9. Train urban women who participate in the marginal, informal labor market, to enhance their income-generating potential within that market, and to promote their entry into and mobility within the modern sector. Strengthen the participation of poor urban women in associations, cooperatives and unions.

10. Train rural women to:

(a) Enhance their returns potential in agricultural production;

(b) Increase their productive activity in new sectors and ensure the availability of complementary resources (e.g., land and credit);

(c) Enhance productive employment in off-farm activities;

(d) Create and strengthen community-level associations, cooperatives and unions to increase women's collective access to productive resources.

Skill Marketability

11. Ensure that the skills training provided is responsive to 'current and future market demands' or has market outlets.

12. Ensure that "opportunity building" is integrated into training design by developing information channels for hiring into formal sector, encouraging contracts between employment sector and training programs for hiring trainees; providing access to credit and technology for entrepreneurial and self-employment projects.

13. Introduce skills enabling women to re-orient traditional home production (e.g., poultry, food processing, animal breeding and spinning activities) into the market place.

14. Provide training in marketing, storage and process techniques and in basic managerial, investment and accounting skills to support this re-orientation.

15. Account for age-variations when designing and targeting programs (e.g., training for adolescent girls can often be longer and future oriented while women with large family/economic responsibilities may require different time, skill and immediacy of training application).

In-Service Training

16. Promote in-service training for women by employers. Ensure that women specifically are recruited for training and receive benefits (e.g., wage increases, promotions, etc.) equally with men upon successful completion of training.

17. Facilitate women's participation in in-service training (especially in view of double burden of domestic responsibilities) by:

(a) Integrating training directly into the production process (rather than lengthening work-day with after-hours training);

(b) Providing an option of all-women training sessions (to overcome reluctance women may have to participate with men because of lower skill level, sex bias, etc.);

(c) Providing modern facilities that lighten household responsibilities, such as child-care alternatives, on the premises.

18. Establish incentives to accelerate women's access to middle-management and sub-professional and technical "applied" fields.

19. Institute and encourage women's recruitment to programs which promote non-academic fields of employment through raising their prestige and economic returns. Recruit female students into all types of vocational training programs offered within the formal educational system, to counteract the tendency for sex-segregation in vocational and paraprofessional training.

Footnotes

1) ILO has defined Vocational Training as follows: "All forms of training of young persons and adults for all areas of economic, social and cultural life and at all levels of occupational skill and responsibility... directed to identifying and developing human capabilities for a productive and satisfying working life and, in conjunction with the different forms of education to improve the ability of the individual to understand and, individually or collectively, to influence working conditions and the social environment" Refer to: "Conditions of Work, Vocational Training and Employment of Women". ILO 11th Conf of American States members of the ILO Medellin Sept-Oct. 1979. Report III.

2) UNESCO has categorized educational-attainment levels of out-of-school-youth as follows:

   -Never attended - (opportunities not available; places not in school; families can't afford; parents attitude to school; etc.)

   -Entered Primary School/Dropped before completion (failed to pass; withdrawn by parents; disillusion)

   -Completed Primary/did not proceed - Basic literacy and numeracy (Parents decided enough; employment necessity; secondary school not available; social attitudes, etc.)

   -Entered Secondary School/Dropped before completion - (Parents; employment; place not available Sec School; failed, disillusion, etc.)

   -Completed Secondary School/Did not continue - (not able/not want to: desire non-academic training; employment)

   Cited in Kahler, D.W. and Droegkamp, J.M. 1980 Characteristics and Needs of Out-of-School Youth USAID/DS/ED NFE and Out of School Youth Project. pgs. 12-13.

3) For the most recent data on sex differences in literacy, droput rates and out-of-school youth, refer to: Kahler, David and Janis Droegkamp, 1980. Characteristics and Needs of Out of School Youth. ibid.

4. The importance in the Third World economy of being semi-skilled rather than unskilled is exemplified by the experience of El Salvador. A benefit-cost analysis of the AID Basic and Occupational Skills Training Project in that country--in which 72% of the participants were women--estimates a Benefit/Cost Ratio of 5.9 based on conservative assumptions.

Total benefits for ten years are estimated at $70 million and total costs at $11.8 million both adjusted to a present value in 1982. Refer to: El Salvador Basic and Occupational Skills Training 1978. (AID - PLC/P - 2287).

5) The effects of male outmigration to oil producing countries and resultant shortages in skills and semi-skilled labor power have compelled Jordan, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt and to some extent Syria and Yenen to recognize the need to train women in marketable skills to fill present shortage. Jordan imports Egyptian labor to substitute for losses incurred with the outmigration of Jordanian males, without considering training Jordanian women when appropriate to take up some of these jobs. At the same time, Egypt faces acute labor shortages in the field of mechanics, welding, construction and machine operation (Harfoush, 1980; Hammam 1979).

6) It is in fact unrealistic to expect that the formal educational system is capable of absorbing the present school age population. More critically it can be argued that even when such an absorption takes place, the overall lack of flexibility of formal school curriculum makes it unsuitable to meet the varied demands for skilled/semi-skilled labor and/or to provide basic understanding needed by the poor majority to secure and hold economically viable jobs.

7) Several reasons are cited in the Latin American experience for the discriminatory practices in training programmes:

"from a historical perspective, most of the initiatives related to vocational training were a response to the urgent need for a flexible solution to increasingly diversified demand for skilled manpower generated by economic modernization. Most urgent requirements that vocational training bodies had to meet came from the industrial sector and within that sector from branches employing modern methods where typically only men were working. Thus women have been excluded by default --since trainees were mostly all male." (ILO, 1979: 42).

8) In the African region ECA has reported that, although women do approximately 80% of agricultural work, they only have access to 15% of the available slots in agricultural training centers. It is not clear, however, whether this includes both training of women as agricultural paraprofessionals and as users of agricultural innovations. In the same region women occupy 100% of the training slots in home economics (Derryck 1978). A report prepared by the Swedish International Development Agency concludes that very little has been done in India, North Viet-Nam, Kenya, Tanzania, Tunisia and Chile to train women as teachers and users of agricultural methods (SIDA, 1974). In 1975 in Jordan women constituted 5% of trainees in vocational courses related to architecture, engineering and laboratory technology in the only vocational training center which permitted women to enroll. As late as 1979 women were legally excluded from the vocational institute offering paraprofessional

training in engineering in Amman. In contrast, all midwifery trainees were women (Harfoush 1980). Sri Lanka appears to be the exception when it comes to sex-stereotyping of certain paraprofessional occupations. In 1976 women in that country constituted close to one half (40%) of all instructors in agricultural extension courses. Predictably, however, all home educators were women (University of Colombo 1979).

9) As opposed to traditional or folk medical systems, where women have always performed as professional healers.

10) The sex-segregation within the western health field has been well-documented. In the U.S. health work is women's work, since over 85% of health service and hospital workers are women. However, it is the male physicians, hospital administrators, insurance company directors, medical school educators and other professionals who dominate, lead and control the health industry. Women occupy mostly the lower-paying, low status paraprofessional and ancillary posts. For thorough discussions of sex-segregation within western medicine and health care see Brown, 1975, Navarro 1975, Ehrenreich and English 1973, and Segovia and Elinson 1978.

11) The resistance to the professionalization of women's health-related work as well as the cultural equation of women as mothers and healers in the West were jointly expressed by Florence Nightingale: "nurses cannot be registered and examined any more than mothers" (Ehrenreich and English 1973: 38).

12) The attempted "modernization" of women's traditional weaving industry in an area of Nepal resulted in the loss of allied jobs (majority of the work in the industry). It introduced new looms, for which replacement parts were not readily available. Local hand-spun thread was replaced by costly-manufactured thread. There was not an effective market channel/established for the products and the increased cost of materials made them inaccessible to local markets. The production output did increase, but with a host of other unintended consequences. UNAPDI, Case Studies in Planning for Women - Bangkok, 1979.

13) If not explicitly included in the design for development, including training, women may in fact effectively resist change. See for example Smithells, J. "Agricultural Extension Work Among Rural Women" University of Reading, Agricultural Extension and Rural Development Center, 1972.

14) An assessment of vocational training programs in five countries of Southern Africa indicated that only training in handicrafts and home economics courses required less than a secondary education and they accounted for approximately 3% of the program places available. USAID memorandum AF/DR/EHR "Vocational and Technical Educational Assessment of Southern African Countries" Feb. 28, 1980.

15) See Kahler, D. and Droegkamp, J. Characteristics and Needs of Out-of-School Youth, USAID, Washington, D.C., 1980 for recent figures on literacy, urban-rural differentation, drop-out, etc.

16) For example, market women in Ghana have developed various systems for accounting and record keeping inspite of illiteracy. They also have a highly developed apprenticeship system.

17) See for example the Non-formal education programs in Kenya and the Philippines co-sponsored by World Education, the National Christian Council of Kenya and the Philippine Rural Reconstruction Movement, with funding from USAID.

18) A study in Kenya of differential access to agriculture training revealed that both men and women were active in community organization. The male 'groups' and the male extensionists, local chiefs, etc. were the vehicles to decide access to training opportunites. Staudt, 1976.

19) "In general there are no properly organized services anywhere to help young people and adults to choose a job or occupation in accordance with the personal interests, abilities, and intellectual capacity". This is true even more so for women. CINTERFOR: "Vocational Training for Working Women", (ILO, 1976).

20) The Farm Women's Agricultural Extension Program in Sri Lanka failed to train women in subsidiary crop cultivation and animal husbandry due to a shortage of qualified personnel to train the women and a lack of marketing facilities, two key factors neglected during the planning of the project. Universy of Colombo, "The Status of Women" Sri Lanka", University of Colombo, 1979.

21) An evaluation of a large scale development project in South East Asia showed that training courses for adult women failed to take into account the increased demands on their time the other project interventions had already created. Consequently enrollment in these training courses was poor and attendance dropped rapidly. (Palmer, 1979).

22) The following are constraints unique to women: early age of marriage, discrimination in the hiring of married women; social pressures for large families; inadequate training preparation; preference for educating males; seclusion practices.

23) 70% of the women in a study in rural Thailand prefered to have training in economic/income related skills. There was also little difference in the preferences expressed by men and women. (Thai National Women's Council, 1977).

24) Topics covered by the LATF-Report included I-Statistics and Research: a) labor force, b) wage/family income, c) occupational studies, d) pricing, e) special programs, f) definitions and methods. II-Macro-Employment Planning: a) macro sectoral Policy and Planning, b) Employment Policy Analysis. III- Micro-labor Market Analysis: a) Supply/demand local labor market, b) Analysis of labor market and Employment Planning, c) Employment and income Strategies. IV- Employment and Income: a) labor force development, b) Employment services, c) Rural labor market organization, d) Labor migration, e) Community support services. V- Employment Standards.

25) Interviews were conducted with the following: Office of Education (DSB) - D. Kinsley, J. Moulton (April 21, 1980); Africa Regional Bureau - W. Waffle (April 29, 1980); Asia Regional Bureau - F. Mann, H. Lundberg (April 15, 1980); Latin American Regional Bureau - B. Haiman, R. Martin, H. Ortiz (April 29-May 1, 1980). Near East Regional Bureau - W. McDonough, A. Midlean, S. Suggs and E. Toll (May 5, 1980).

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